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DECEMBER COVER

The picture on the cover is the main entrance to the Administration Building at Indiana State Teachers College.

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Higher Standards—More Teachers

No one can deny that there currently exists a severe shortage of teachers in all levels of public education. From all studies concerning predicted future enrollments and birth rates, it can only be concluded that this situation will become even more critical in the not-too-distant future.

Viewing this condition, one might infer that the solution to the whole problem would be to simply throw open the doors of the teacher training institutions, hang out the welcome signs to any and all persons, and beg and plead with them to become teachers. This would be returning to "the antiquated belief that anyone can teach school" as is so aptly pointed out by Dr. John L. Bracken in the December, 1952, issue of the NEA Journal. Such a procedure might get more people in school, but certainly would not get more teachers in school.

If we consider for a moment some of the other types of institutions and professions, perhaps we can see a partial solution to our teacher shortage problem. Take, for example, the engineering field. Engineering schools which maintain a reputation of highest standards and which produce the best qualified engineers, experience no difficulty in fulfilling enrollment quotas. The best medical schools, likewise, are faced with the problem, not of recruiting students, but with turning away students. They cannot admit all who would prefer to attend their schools. A similar situation exists with the best law and dental schools.

Do we not then, see a parallel between these other professions and the teaching profession? Does it not follow that if an institution responsible for teacher education established

high standards for its students and developed an unequalled reputation for the preparation of its graduates, it, too, would soon find an unprecedented desire on the part of the best qualified persons to enroll therein?

Such programs with elevated standards and with the element of selectivity of students are in operation in a few teacher training institutions in some areas. For the most part, these colleges are not suffering too greatly from declining enrollments, and on the other hand, the quality of the prospective teachers produced is steadily improving.

Perhaps, then, with higher standards, with increased prestige of the teaching profession, and with greater selectivity of students, the teacher shortage problem might well be alleviated rather than increased.

CHARLES HARDAWAY
Editor

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Improving The Teaching Personnel In Service

Olis G. Jamison

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The accompanying article is the revised text of an address delivered by Dr. Olis Jamison at the Third Annual Work Session on Colorado School Problems held at the University of Denver, August 4-8, 1952.

The superintendent of schools has many responsibilities, some of them being so important that notable accomplishment in any one may give him prestige as an administrator. Thus the superintendent who is an exceptionally good public relations man is usually highly esteemed. Similarly the man who is a good business manager for his school system or the man who does a good job in the administration of buildings and grounds may be thought highly successful for those reasons alone.

Actually, however, success at any or all of these tasks is of minor importance compared to success at the greatest responsibility the superintendent has—that of selecting and administering the teaching personnel. For if the purpose of the school is to educate the young people who attend it, then success or failure must lie fundamentally with the effectiveness of the teaching. It follows that no superintendent can be considered a truly successful administrator unless he succeeds in selecting an efficient staff of teachers and then, equally important, helps these teachers improve themselves in service.

Cook defines in-service education of teachers as being *any activity on the part of teachers-in-service that tends to improve their professional services*. We shall use this definition as the basis of our thinking in what follows.

Why improve teachers in service?

Every normal human being is capable of growth, whether he be one year old or sixty. He may grow in knowledge, in social understandings and skills, in self-understanding, in the special techniques of his job or profession, in ambition, and in other ways. All such growth is important for the teacher, for every development into something better than he was should help him work more effectively with the boys and girls under his guidance.

Some individuals are so eager for self-improvement that they will make every opportunity to become better human beings and better teachers. Others, and unfortunately these are in the majority, are satisfied with "well-enough" and since they make no effort to grow, either remain "fairly-good" or "just passable" or actually regress.

With both types of teacher, the superintendent has a vital responsibility. With the first, he must provide the kind of environment that will permit the individual to make progress. Thus a fine, ambitious teacher in a rigid school system which allows for no originality and creativeness cannot make the growth that his nature desires and the superintendent who has thus failed him must be considered a bad one. With the second group, the superintendent must provide not only a permissive environment but also a stimulating one, for many teachers will not make the effort to improve themselves unless strong incentives are put in their path.

Both the young novice at teaching and the experienced teacher need help in becoming better teachers. The

young man or woman just out of a college of education or teachers' college has, it is true, spent the last four or five years engaged in self-improvement as far as his school work is concerned. If his job were then a simple one, perhaps we could assume that he would be well fitted to undertake it and would need no further education for a while at least. But this is not true. His job is the most complex and important in the world and four years of education cannot possibly prepare him sufficiently to carry it through with the highest success. What is more, upon assuming his new job he must adjust to a new working environment, new supervision, and the fact that his is the sole responsibility for the guidance of his students. In all of this he needs help if he is to do his best. That help with some, it should be repeated, need be no more than encouraging and enlightened environment. With others it must also include a more active inspiration and leadership.

The experienced teacher as well as the novice needs this encouragement to grow. The superintendent must never fall into the comfortable belief that his experienced teachers who handle their work capably have gone sufficiently far in their development. He should never underestimate their possibilities for becoming *better* teachers or fail to realize that such growth will not only improve school life for the students in the school, but will also make the teachers life more meaningful and worthwhile.

We shall consider therefore each of the two major responsibilities of the superintendent in the in-service education of his teachers: (1) providing an environment which permits teacher growth; (2) providing the incentives to encourage growth.

What can the administrator do to make the environment one where teachers are free to grow?

1. Respect for individuality. In America we realize that not coercion or strict conformity with the ideas of the leader, but rather opportunity to think for oneself, to share in the plan-

ning, to follow to some extent one's own dictates, is what makes for the happy individual and also for the most effective individual. The good superintendent will recognize the fact that he does not have all the answers to what good education means nor are his ways necessarily the best ways for other members of his school staff. He will realize that there are many good paths to the goal of well-educated young people and he will allow all of the freedom possible to his teachers so long as that freedom is not abused.

2. Respect for the authority of others. A teacher is given responsibilities. The superintendent will weaken that teacher if directly or indirectly he undermines his authority. It is one of the principles of mental health that every person needs a place in a group where he is respected and where he is able to act with some competence. The superintendent who criticizes the teacher to others, "goes over his head," makes all decisions for him or allows him to make decisions which are then disregarded, will either give that teacher a feeling that nothing he does really counts for much or else will make him rebellious and hostile toward the administration. Neither feeling is, obviously, conducive to that teacher's development.

3. Opportunity for companionship and alliance. Almost everyone will thrive best in an environment where he feels that he is among friends and where he enjoys the companionship of others who are working toward the same goal. The good superintendent will promote friendly relationships among his faculty and between faculty and administration. The basis for this must be an administrator who likes people, who feels kindly toward others, and who does not stand aloof from his faculty. His door must be open to them, his heart too must be open to them, and his desk must separate friends, not "brass" and subordinate. But further than this, it is good if faculty meetings and social gatherings are arranged to make pos-

sible a friendly interchange so that all get to know each other and enjoy each other's companionship in work and in social activity.

4. Appreciation. One of the surest ways to demoralize an individual is to withhold appreciation from him. Everyone needs to feel that he is of worth if he is to be happy and do his best work. This was well illustrated in one school where there was a change of administration upon the retirement of a superintendent. Under the new superintendent school policies were unchanged. The faculty was essentially the same as that of the previous year. Faculty opportunities remained as they had been. Yet by the middle of the year it was very noticeable that the morale of the faculty had deteriorated greatly. There was previously unknown bitterness and wrangling along with a rather general feeling of "What's the use? Nothing we do seems to be of any importance."

The students and the townspeople became aware of the change in the feeling of the school and one school-board member privately asked an older and highly respected teacher what was wrong. She thought a while and then said, "Actually it's hard to put your finger on what is wrong. In so many ways everything is the same as it was last year. There is one thing, though, that is different. Superintendent Smith always had some word of appreciation for you. He noticed what you did and he made you feel that doing it was important. He made everyone feel that he amounted to something."

Then she said, in some surprise, "You know, I think that's the whole explanation. Our new superintendent is just the opposite. I have never heard him say one word in praise of anyone. We hear from him when something's wrong, but otherwise there's silence. However childish it may seem, I guess we all need to be appreciated if we are to be happy in our work."

Childish? Not at all. Human—that is the truth of the matter. The good

superintendent will know this. He will always remember that teachers will thrive and also strive when their merits and achievements are noted.

5. The need to be creative. Another way to achieve the necessary sense of worth is through creative activity. Whether it be in a hobby or in one's profession, creativeness is rewarding for it makes life more interesting and also gives a feeling of achievement. Most teachers desire to try the new and different which they think will be an improvement upon old ways. Yet superintendents sometimes belittle such attempts or sharply curb them, either from a liking for the comfortable inertia of the old routine or—even worse—from fear of being outshown. Such administrators cut off from the teacher one of his best avenues to growth.

6. Freedom from stress. Groups can easily become disorganized and without ambition if petty grievances, rivalries, overwork, or actual injustices are allowed to flourish. The good superintendent will be watchful of the emotional atmosphere of his staff and will try to prevent those situations which lead to overfatigue, jealousies, or the feeling that rights are ignored.

Fear and worry are particularly destructive, and no teacher can be expected to do his best if, however good he may be, he is afraid that his job is not secure, afraid that the superintendent is not a man of his word, afraid that petty complaints from students or townspeople will have more weight than the teacher's word, or afraid that his judgements will be overruled arbitrarily by a superintendent who puts popularity above justice.

All of this demonstrates that inservice education of teachers means, first, that the atmosphere be made conducive to growth. The superintendent will best further this if he will have respect for the individuality of his teachers and respect for their authority, if he will show them appreciation, let them be creative, and reduce friction, tension, and needless fears.

What can the administrator do to stimulate and guide the development of his staff?

1. Teachers' meetings. These are best held at some time during the school day so as not to encroach on the free time of the teacher. If they must be held at some out-of-school period, they should be confined to a moderate amount of time, say an hour, and they should be sharply cut short when that time is up.

Although faculty meetings serve the purpose of furthering the general administration of the school, they may be a source of in-service education to the teacher if used to consider group problems and work out plans for their solution. The resultant feeling that the school in all of its areas is the concern of all is likely to stimulate new interest, awaken new understandings, and lead to greater effort.

2. Professional study meetings. Out of faculty meetings, or in other ways, problems needing careful study come to the attention of the faculty. These can be referred to a committee of faculty members, who read all they can on the problem, discuss it, and then bring back conclusions to the faculty as a whole for further consideration. Such study meetings serve to encourage reading, develop initiative, and stimulate a desire to improve the conditions being studied.

3. Visiting days. Most teachers have no opportunity to see other teachers teach. Yet such observations can be very stimulating, and a good superin-

tendent will try to make a visit to some other school possible to any teacher who desires it.

4. Leave of absence. Sabbatical leaves have long been customary in the large universities and colleges. Now we are finding them more and more in city school systems, where there is a realization that allowing a teacher time off (with pay) periodically for the purpose of professional improvement contributes to the school welfare. Some schools offer the teachers a year's leave at half pay every seventh year, some offer a half-year's leave at full pay, others a leave without pay but with advance on the salary schedule as if the year had been spent on the job, and still others offer a half-year's leave after three years of teaching, with half pay for that time. In every case it is expected that the teacher will spend the leave in gaining experiences that will make him more effective professionally on his return.

5. Summer school attendance. Many school systems encourage summer school attendance by salary increments for a certain number of credit hours earned. Such school attendance not only brings the refreshment and stimulation of a change of scene and of companions, but also helps the teacher become more up-to-date on professional thinking and experimentation.

6. Extension classes. It is to be hoped that the administrator will not decide that a certain extension course should be offered, call the college to

arrange for it, and then tell his teachers to take it. Much better results accrue when the faculty discuss the areas in which they need help and when courses are then arranged to meet these real needs. Most colleges offering extension classes are willing to tailor courses to fit demands in this way.

7. Teacher participation in administration. There are many ways in which teachers can participate in administrative responsibilities both to improve the administrative routine and to further teacher growth. Some administrative duties can be performed more effectively when the teachers share in them and at the same time the teacher benefits by securing more understanding of administrative problems, feeling a more important part of the school enterprise, and developing abilities outside of his usual line of work.

Thus teachers may take part in selecting textbooks, making the salary schedules, improving the curriculum on an overall basis, working with truants, making the school calendar, arranging for extension courses, and the like.

In final summary, we call to attention again this important fact: No superintendent is fulfilling his obligations and no superintendent can be called a good administrator unless he is doing all that he can to make the environment one that encourages teacher development and also provides definite ways by which teachers may make professional growth.

Clear Lake Camp—A School In The Woods

Don Hammerman

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This is the first of two articles concerning Clear Lake Camp and its activities. The second article will appear in a future issue of the Journal.

—EDITOR

At various times during the year, many children in Michigan have the unusual opportunity of attending a new and exciting type of schoolroom. There are no blackboards or desks to

be seen in this uniquely different classroom. Instead, the floor is variable; it is very often soil, or rock, or even water. The ceiling is vast and changeable, for it is the sky. The four walls are limitless, for they extend as far as a child's two legs will carry him.

The kind of learning which takes place in this outdoor classroom is new and exciting too. Rather than gather information from textbooks, the students use their eyes and ears to observe firsthand the lessons that are



Time to Build the Fires and Unpack the Food.

contained in "the book of the woods."

Clear Lake Camp, located near Dowling, Michigan, is operated by the Battle Creek Public Schools and has the distinction of being the first

year-round school-camp to be developed in the United States.

Boys and girls in the middle elementary grades, and occasionally a seventh, eighth, or ninth grade come

to camp as a class with their teacher. The week's experience in the camp then takes on the aspects of a miniature community. The children first plan together with the aid of their teacher and counselor how they are going to utilize their time in the out-of-doors. They usually try to plan activities that will tie right in with whatever they are studying back in school. In this manner, the camp area is used as an extension of the classroom. Some activities which children have planned and carried out are: lumbering, cooking out, compass hikes, drawing maps, planting trees, building a check dam, clearing out dense stands of second growth timber, star gazing, fishing, exploring the lake-shore, studying trees, birds, plants, insects, rocks and minerals, constructing shelters, tapping maple trees and making sugar, finding and eating wild foods, tracking animals,

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Language In Intergroup And International Relations

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As we all know, language is one of the most important factors in human relationships. Without language we are at a loss to know what to do. Gestures may serve at times as a means of communication but we cannot go far without talk, even though we often think there is too much talk. Language is all-important in intercultural relationships. Last year, for instance, I was at the University of Uppsala, in charge of American Studies at the American Institute there.

Since I knew no Swedish when I arrived, the assignment would have been meaningless except for one fact: the Swedish students all understood and spoke the English language, so that there was an adequate means of communication between us. It is now their second language. They have nine years of it before they come to the University. Sweden, as a small nation, feels that it is vital to learn languages. The Swedes know that they must communicate with others, for

relatively few outsiders will learn Swedish. The students in the University select any three subjects that they like. Many select English, French, and German. That is, they spend all their time at the University learning to communicate with others. Those not in the University form private groups to study languages. They take it very seriously. Often they join classes at the folk schools—that is, adult education classes which are available there. You can see from this how important one small nation feels that language is in its relations with others.

To the Swede it was not important that I did not speak Swedish; they wanted to hear English and to practice their English. Each year at Uppsala they invite over one Britisher and one American. Since America is now playing a dominant role in world affairs, they believe they should know something about America and the American language—its culture, thoughts and practices. I have presented the view of the Swedish people.

From my side, I had a wonderful year, but, no doubt, it would have been even more rewarding had I known their language when I arrived.

Here is a theory that I heard in Sweden. You may consider it and see what you think of it. The theory is that since America and Russia are the two big powers now, every one should learn his native language and then English or Russian. In that way every one would be able to communicate with some group other than his own, and if enough people knew the language of the two big powers, and if we could reach the people, perhaps there could be more understanding in the world, and nations could get together and work out some peaceful solution for our beleaguered civilization.

On leaving Sweden I came home the long way round, by way of the Far East. I was interested in finding out, at first hand, something about the problems in education in these countries. I interviewed a considerable number of educators in the various countries and I found that several of them were plagued not only by a lack of adequate physical facilities, schools, textbooks and the like, but even more by the diversity of tongues among the various groups within their respective lands. Without some one official language as a common denominator, they felt that they could get nowhere in their efforts to raise the cultural level of their people.

The result was that I became more and more conscious that one of our greatest assets in this country is that we use one language and can understand each other. It does not matter whether we travel in New England, in the West, the South, the Middle West, or along the Atlantic Seaboard. We can understand what is being said. In particular, what a contrast there is in situation between America and India whose vast territories take in many languages and dialects. Now that India is free from England, a tide of Nationalism is sweeping the country. Before 1947 English was used as the medium of instruction. All educated Indians

know English. But, henceforth the media of instruction are to be the local language and Hindi, which has been chosen as the national language, the language of communication for the country. At present, however, large groups of Indians cannot understand each other, since so many different languages are spoken and Hindi is far from being understood generally. Yet the educated Indians realize that if they are going to play an important part in the world today they must learn English, but it will be taught as just another subject.

Here is the problem specifically. If there is a school where Tamil is the principal language, but if there are a number of pupils speaking Bengali or Telugu, those pupils must be taught all their subjects in their own language. There must be a teacher who knows this language and can teach all the subjects in it. This seems to me like having a one-teacher country school within the school.

We, in the United States, have encountered similar problems in our large cities, such as New York, Chicago, Los Angeles, Philadelphia, San Francisco and Boston. In New York, for example, there are many different nationalities living within narrow confines and almost shut off from others by a barrier of language or lack of it. For a period they were almost walled in. They did not mix socially or economically with other nationalities except in rare cases. Thus we allowed to exist a Little Italy, a Chinatown, a Yorkville (the German and Slavic groups centered within one small geographic area) and so on. There the people did have one thing in common—language. This was the tie that kept them together and kept them segregated from their fellow citizens.

Human beings are wary of things new or different or alien to their knowledge. What they do not understand they do not trust or accept. Only by understanding what a person is saying can they know the person. What they understand or whom they know, they do not fear. The saying: "You speak my language" is

literally true. It is the means of developing a common bond between individuals.

It is claimed that there is still too much segregation in the United States; that there is not enough basic understanding among all people living here—especially for a country as democratic as ours. If we look at our history, we find that the bridge between foreign peoples and natives has been built through language. The second generation, under our systems of education, has learned and has taught the first generation the English language and American customs, habits, holidays, and principles.

We have also reached the foreigners in our midst through their own languages and newspapers or teachers. We have overcome the barriers by our media of entertainment and education. This education has been a two way process. We have taught foreign languages in our secondary and higher schools. We have had introduced to us knowledge and understanding of foreign people and their cultures and we have assimilated some of it in our national lives and languages.

There have been claims that we have not eliminated discrimination and prejudice in the United States. However, the more we know about other groups the less they will discriminate against us and the less we will shun them. By interchange of ideals and by intermingling, we find much to offer and to receive. The more we know people, the less we disregard them—the less they neglect or disregard us. Segregation and discrimination are being dissolved within cities, and within the country by and large.

We must keep an open mind. Take children for example. They may speak different languages but if we put them together they will soon be at play. They will learn some expressions and understand each other's games. Before long they will be understanding each other. Last year the Irish professor at Uppsala University had a son, age seven. He did not know a word of Swedish on arrival. Before long he had learned enough

to want to go to school. When I visited the school one day I saw him having a wonderful time with the other children. He was at home with them and liked them.

Perhaps those of the older generation should go to the child to learn—to learn how to eliminate or overcome prejudices that they have. There must always be a desire to communicate and then a way will be found.

What more can be done about the intergroup problem? In addition to stressing foreign languages and cultures there must be a thorough education of the foreign groups within a nation. This will make them a better functioning part of the nation. There should be more special schools and courses for the foreign born. The foreigner should not be snubbed or ignored but made a part of the community as soon as possible. In this way we learn from the Little Italys or the Yorkvilles. We enrich our own ideas and personalities and develop a deeper understanding of the world. Language is the bridge between groups in one country. Can it remove the barriers between peoples in different countries? In international relations?

Until recently nations seemed to be interested primarily in each other for commercial purposes. Some historians contend that the military forces were a mere aid to commerce and trade. Early in the twentieth century, however, such forces were a detriment to trade if stationed in a country not fully developed or not having a stable government. Commercial firms had to sell their products on merit or by salesmanship, not by force of arms. Some firms sent representatives with children to the importing country with instructions to rear these children in the new land to learn the language as a native, to learn the habits and customs and commercial needs. They were returned to their land of origin for study and training and returned to their adopted lands as full fledged salesmen of the firm's products. The natives bought from the man who could "speak their language like a native." Americans,

though they had a superior product, were not able to win these markets until war and blockades made our products the only ones available. Now we may have some resident agents or branch foreign departments in all countries of the world.

Today we are faced with a more puzzling problem in international relations. We must sell IDEAS AND OUR WAY OF LIFE. The "Voice of America" can be effective only when its messages are understood by the persons to whom these messages are directed. The language of the specific area and of a specific country must be employed. It is the hope of the Western world that much of the propaganda of other parts may be offset if we can reach the people with what we consider the truth and the real facts about the world. The limitations we face for lack of language are serious in international relations. Perhaps international agreement through the United Nations may bring to the world "FREE LANGUAGE" (freedom of speech on an international basis) and "FREE AIR WAVES" (the right to transmit to all countries). These two are as important as the other "four freedoms" in removing the tension and friction of our critical times. It is true that increased communication might increase conflict, competitiveness, and slavery, but we also know the general integrating and socializing role which communication performs in numerous individuals and communities. Communication will not insure cooperation, as we know from national and regional rivalries, but it is the principal agency for attaining, keeping and extending the integration of the individual personality and society.

We do have some means for international groups to communicate with each other. The United Nations, some sixty nations, has solved its problem of language barriers somewhat. There are, for example, the earphones which, at the click of a switch, give to the listener the speech being made in a choice of five languages: English, French, Spanish, Russian and Chi-

nese. The speech being made is translated simultaneously by a corps of interpreters in each of these languages. Each listener can turn on the language that he wishes to hear and all can hear the speaker at once. This practical and mechanical solution has been of immense importance for the world representatives to communicate with each other in international conferences.

This device was used recently at the International Medical Congress in Stockholm, Sweden, where Dr. Craaford, the world-renowned heart surgeon, of Caroline Institute in Stockholm, delivered an address before the Congress. His speech was translated from Swedish into other languages simultaneously for listeners from various parts of the world.

Americans have heretofore been more or less indifferent to foreign languages. We have had little need for them. Few Americans have learned to read or speak another tongue. When languages have been taught, the reading was emphasized not the speaking.

We now realize how small the world is becoming and that we all have to travel or meet travellers from afar. Military service and commercial work now take many Americans abroad. Other nations send their students and citizens to America and we send exchange students and research scholars to many parts of the world.

During World War II the Army was confronted with the language problem. All available linguistic experts were rushed to provide books, texts and recordings for the soldiers being sent to all parts of the world. They stressed speaking. That was the immediate need and the methods used have proved themselves effective. Some schools have adopted the benefits and improvements. Other are loath to change. Cornell University, for example, now has a department that emphasizes the speaking of a language. Professor Robert Hall, now at Cornell, states that his students of Italian learn to read and write more quickly after learning to speak it first. We learn our native

speech in this way. Why should it not work with other languages also?

The missionaries to the American Indians, and foreign missionaries propagating their faiths, first learned to speak the local language and to convey their messages in the language of the people whom they sought to teach and convert. They worked on an intergroup basis.

On theoretical grounds alone, it might seem that much, if not all, of the world's problems of communication amid the vast diversity of tongues might be solved, once and for all, if the United Nations or some international body of comparable influence adopt for world-wide use an auxiliary language, usually conceived of as an artificial one created specifically for the purpose, like Esperanto, Interlingua and the host of others invented or adapted from living languages. Hitherto, the difficulties in obtaining agreement on any such program have been insuperable. Whether or not they will always be so, only time can tell.

Perhaps it will work out in the ordinary, workaday world. Take, for instance, that new field of man's accomplishment, aviation.

Today the whole globe is closely knit together by a network of airliners. Pilots from many nations are landing at and departing from airports of half a dozen or more countries in the short span of one or two flights.

Their own safety and that of their planes and their passengers depend entirely on a full understanding of instructions as between airfield control towers and the aircraft. Disaster is well-nigh inevitable if a pilot attempts a landing when he was told to stay aloft, or if he picks out the wrong runway through lack of comprehension of the orders given.

Yet the pilots have enough to do operating the many devices that keep the planes functioning, without doubling as linguists. Control towers in many parts of the world are now making a study of conversations for use in the air transport industry. Since the member nations of the In-

ternational Civil Aviation Organization have agreed that the English language should be the basis of the new international aviation language, it seems that this language will be an easy-to-use but special kind of English.

In the present era we need to speak other languages. Recognizing the need for speaking more languages in the United States, Teachers College at Columbia University is now advocating a second language to be introduced into elementary schools. I understand that Public School No. 2 in Brooklyn, New York, has already introduced a second language as a requirement. There may also be other elementary and junior high schools trying to fill such language needs.

There are "language houses" on many college campuses which, to promote facility in the use of a foreign language, require all the students living in the house to converse only in that tongue.

Mastery of more languages is essential for us Americans because the world is becoming very small so to speak. I became very conscious of that fact as I flew around it. More and more we have to deal with other nations and other ethnic groups. The United States now does business (commercial, diplomatic, or military) in about fifty languages, but the schools teach only about ten.

Many wish to come to the United States for one reason or another. I never expected that I should see the day when most of the students of other countries would wish to study here. It is true now and I hope that it will continue to be true. The more students and leaders of other countries that come here and learn our language and understand us somewhat more, the better it will be for us and for the other nations of the world. Lately, students from America have been sent to other countries to learn their languages and their modes of living. In this way they become adept in speaking other languages and gain knowledge of the ideas and customs of the people. There is no better method of bringing about un-

derstanding among nations. There is no doubt that language facilitates relations among peoples of different countries. Language is the great medium through which human cooperation is developed. It is the means by which the diverse activities of men are correlated for the attainment of common ends.

The hope of the United Nations is based upon the idea that many nations with diverse languages and varying cultures can come together and understand one another. At the United Nations, representatives of sixty nations with a population of approximately two billion people meet. It is upon this organization that we base our hope for world peace through cooperation among nations. The very existence of this organization has increased the need for nations to learn the problems, ideas and historic development of other nations. A people's language is a country's history. To understand the story of the growth of a country's language is to understand the people of that country. This problem is not alone the problem of the United Nations but is the problem of all of us in our own country.

Our schools teach languages. We have exchange students and professors and research scholarship students in many parts of the world. We attend international conferences, athletic matches and tournaments, shows, fairs and Olympic games. We invite other nations and their citizens to compete or attend at the ones we hold. Think of how much good will and understanding that are gained in these intergroup and international meetings and contests! Think of how much opportunity for spreading the good name of the United States! Language facility of our representatives would add to our name and fame and standing as cultured people. Language facility would make our visitors feel more at home and help them learn more of our culture and ways.

Psychologically speaking, a knowledge of one or more languages helps the development of human personali-

ty. It makes for self-assurance, a variety of interests, broad outlook, sympathetic understanding, intellectual stimulation and cultural attainment.

The paradox of language is that it is both a bridge and a barrier to intergroup and international relations. It is a bridge in the sense of being more or less the only exciting means of communication between people. On the other hand, communication is not always perfect. If we consider language as a tool, it is in a way the most fundamental tool of all. But its very inefficiencies as a tool reveal that the language is more than just a tool. It is a response to environment.

The factors of the environment, physical and cultural, are the determinants of language. Language gets to be a barrier to intergroup relations when the above determinants are overlooked, and it is studied with the dictionary alone and without the help of the atlas and the history book. Comprehending and speaking a foreign language well is more than just a skill. The differences between Frenchmen and Americans go deeper than the supposed mere accident of saying "chapeau" for "hat". That is to say, mastery of the skill alone tells you what is in the speaker's mouth. Knowledge of his environment, cul-

ture and background tells you what is in his mind.

For intergroup and international relations to be at all successful, mutual understanding of the parties involved is an absolute essential. Language is the key, making accessible the store of knowledge on which to base a thorough understanding. Possession of the key alone is of no value, but without it, the store of knowledge remains inaccessible, and here is to be found the true importance of language in intergroup and international relations.

Adolescent Delinquency In Indiana

R. A. Acher

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There are over two thousand inmates at Indiana Reformatory at the present time. They range in age from sixteen to twenty-five years of age and beyond that age in case of those with long sentences. The population is constantly changing. Each month about seventy-five inmates are paroled at the end of their minimum sentence; but during that month about that number of new inmates are admitted including some parole violators. A large percent have had some school training, both grade and high school and a small number have been enrolled in college.

Why are they doing time in the Reformatory? In the ten years that I have acted as Inmate Welfare Supervisor and Clinical Psychologist at that Institution after my retirement from the faculty of Indiana State Teachers College, an answer to that question was constantly in my mind.

The outstanding fact is that they are still governed in their social conduct by their childhood pattern of life. While they developed physically

and to a degree intellectually their emotional and social pattern of conduct remained on a childhood level. While they were children this pattern of self centered conduct worked fairly satisfactorily. But to change this pattern to meet life's problems on an adult level was a serious challenge that they have not been helped to achieve. As life became more complex their human contacts widened, their interests, needs and desires increased and they proceeded to satisfy these by following their childhood pattern of social conduct. Reverting to childhood pattern of social behavior to meet life's issues is all too frequent. This applies to many who do not find their way to the Reformatory. Many of the inmates say, "We are just the little crooks; the big ones have not been caught." Is there some truth in what they say? There are too many persons who do not follow Paul's injunction: "When I was a child, I spoke as a child, I understood as a child, I thought as a child; but when I became a man I put away childish

things." To meet our social obligations and responsibilities and become law abiding citizens requires maturity of thought, feeling and action. If we can believe psychiatrists there are all too many cases of immature adjustment to life in addition to those who find their way into a correctional institution.

A few cases that have come under my personal observation may reveal these immature adjustments at the Reformatory.

CASE I

A seventeen year old high school youth was sentenced to the Reformatory for car theft. He admitted that he had taken his girl friend for a ride at least seventeen times before being caught. He said the only difficulty he had was that his girl friend was somewhat disturbed because he drove so many cars of different makes. But he calmed her by telling that he had several uncles who permitted him to drive their cars. He said he liked to drive cars and thought he was entitled to drive one now and then. He just borrowed them and didn't steal them. He was reported to be a fairly good student intellectually; but socially and emotionally he followed his childhood pattern. Could the school have helped him organize his life on an emotional and social level of maturity? What do we mean by

emotional and social maturity? One psychiatrist has defined it as follows: "To do what is best for self and others and like to do it." It is mainly a matter of the emotions for right social conduct springing from the emotions that have become habitual. The intellect may point the way but the emotions generate the energy to reach the goal. In an immature mind the intellect becomes the slave of the emotions as in the above mentioned case.

CASE 2

This is an eighteen year old youth who comes from an average family in fairly good economic standing. He was sentenced to the Reformatory for forgery. He was the youngest in the family with six older sisters. It was not difficult to diagnose his case. He was showered with attention from the family and naturally believed that he was entitled to all the attention and favors he received. But as he grew up these favors and attentions were somewhat reduced he felt slighted. His wants had increased, and he wanted things that his family could not or d'd not grant. To get even with them and secure what he thought he was entitled to he began to forge checks on his father's bank account. These were first allowed to be cashed but as he continued to forge others, the law was allowed to dispose of the case and he was sentenced to the Reformatory. Here he was helped to go over his life and see how childish he acted. He admitted that he had been a spoiled brat. Since his release from the Institution, he has returned to his family and gives evidence of wanting to act like a man and put away childish things. Could the school have helped him and the family to see what they were doing to him and help him grow up emotionally and socially so he would not have to learn the hard way?

CASE 3

This is the case of a young man who early lost his father. His sentence to the Reformatory was for being an accessory to a murder of an officer of

the law. His mother was a religious fanatic who would not permit him to play with other children nor let him go to movies, but instead made him go to prayer meetings and confess his sins. He said from the time he was eight years of age his main task was to outwit his Mother. He would slip change from her pocketbook to go to movies, or buy candy; slip out of home to play with other children and skip school. As he grew up this pattern of conduct was readily transferred to his other social relationships and the law enforcing officers were substituted for his Mother. How could he outwit them? This young man has a high score on the intelligence test but remained on a child level in his emotional and social pattern of life. Here is a young man that might have been saved and directed on the road to good citizenship if the school and community had done their full duty. His long sentence which separates him from the social world where he will have to live is not promising for his future.

CASE 4

This man was within two weeks of receiving his A.B. Degree in Business Administration when he was sentenced to Indiana Reformatory for stealing. He has high intelligence and made good grades in his school work. This is his story: As he was packing his trunk to return home in a few weeks he thought of his two nieces for whom he wanted to bring some gift that would greatly please them. He was in a jewelry store one day and saw some bracelets that were just what he was looking for to present to his nieces, so when the clerk was in some other part of the store he just slipped them into his pocket and walked out. The clerk soon missed them, called the police who went to his room and found the bracelets in the bottom of his trunk. He admitted that as a youngster he would occasionally take things from grocery stores and the ten cent store on the sly.

Here we have a man who passed through the grades and high school

and was about to take his degree in Business Administration who regressed to his childhood pattern of emotional and social conduct when the opportunity presented itself. In fact, he never established mature habits of emotional conduct. In the interviews I had with him he was asked if he ever felt obligated to others for their contribution to his way of life. He said he didn't feel obligated to anyone as no one had ever done anything for him. I asked him who made his clothes, his shoes, who was responsible for raising the animals that provided his meat, and the bread and vegetables he ate, who provided the streets he walked upon, the schools he attended, the telephone he used, the electric lights he used, the doctors and dentists who knew how to minister to his needs, the public libraries he was at liberty to use, the police ready to protect him and his property from vandalism, and all the technical inventions that contributed to our human comfort and welfare. He admitted that he had never thought of life in that way and no one had ever called his attention to it. He thought his sentence was necessary to wake him up to his responsibility to others. Since his release he writes me that he has secured a good job, has joined the Junior Chamber of Commerce in his home town and hopes he may still have his A.B. Degree conferred upon him.

What was lacking in his education and could the schools have helped him mature emotionally and socially? Will he be able to retain his adult standards of social conduct or will he again regress to his childhood pattern of behavior? His future would be much more secure if he could have been helped to establish the right emotional and social habits as he grew to maturity physically and intellectually.

CASE 5

This young man, twenty years of age, persuaded a young woman to leave home and marry him. They soon were short of funds and to recuperate his finances he tried to rob

a business place with a gun. He soon was in the clutches of the law and received a 10 to 20 year sentence to the Reformatory. He made a high score on the intelligence test and made fairly good grades in school. But his social outlook and sense of responsibility remained on a child level. As my clerk, he was devoted to his work, was interested in his future, wanted help in reorganizing his social pattern of life and made such progress that he finally received clemency. In one of our many interviews I asked him what he would do if he found a pocket book with one hundred dollars in it and no one saw him pick it up. "Keep it, of course" was his immediate reply. He was told that until he could think of a more socially mature answer he could not expect any leniency. He did later give a very satisfactory reply. Since his release we have corresponded regularly. He appears to be adjusted well. In his last letter he stated that he made that pocket book proposition to dozens of his friends and they all answered as he did when first confronted with the proposition. He said he was shocked at such socially naive answers by his friends. He now has a good job and his future seems secure. He had to learn the hard way.

CASE 6

This is a psychopathic personality which illustrates how the unconscious factors may dominate an individual's conduct. He made the highest score on the intelligence test of any of the inmates. As a youngster his parents wanted him to become a minister and sent him to a theological seminary much against his will. But he submitted to their wishes finished the course and preached for one year. But he said he didn't believe what he preached and at the end of that year he quit preaching. He went to Illinois, forged a check and did one year at the Reformatory. When released he came back to Indiana, forged another check and did a year at Indiana Reformatory. When released on parole, he secured a job in

the State of Kentucky. Here he again forged a check and did time in that state. When released he was brought back to Indiana Reformatory for parole violation. When paroled the second time he secured a job in a large city. Shortly after his release this time, he wrote me that he wanted to see me. As I was planning to attend a meeting of the Indiana Mental Hygiene Conference in his city in a few days, I invited him to be my guest at that conference. This he did and I took him to lunch and then we listened to an address by the psychiatrist Menninger. He appeared to enjoy the lecture, was in good spirits and said he had a good job and was now ready to obey the law. But in a few weeks he forged another check and is now doing time at the State Prison, because of his age. What makes a man act that way? Here we have a man of high intelligence who has harbored a rebellious, antagonistic attitude from early youth but did what others directed him to do in spite of this feeling. He didn't want to become a preacher but surrendered to the dictates of his parents. This built up a deep unconscious rebellious attitude that was finally transferred to the authority of the law. He found a degree of satisfaction in following that unconscious drive against authority. That masochistic attitude of self mutilation is now well recognized by psychiatry. He was motivated by two drives, one conscious, the other unconscious and the latter dominated at times and gave a degree of satisfaction. Can these two drives be unified so that socially acceptable conduct will always dominate? In this case it appears hopeless.

These six cases will give some idea of the nature of the inmates at the Reformatory. It should be said, however, that there are several hundred feeble minded or near feeble minded inmates at the Reformatory whose future is not promising for that reason.

The State of Indiana is spending

several millions of dollars each year to support the six correctional institutions; four for males and two for females. While the home, the church and the community must share the blame with the schools for keeping our correctional institutions filled to capacity and beyond, it should be the special challenge to the public schools to reduce this delinquent population and improve the ethical standards of our citizens generally. If the public schools could be as successful in inculcating the proper habits and emotional patterns of social adjustment and responsibility as they are in teaching subject matter out of books, we would make greater headway against delinquency. This would require considerable reorganization of the program and objectives of the schools. The growing generation must be helped to come into closer contact with the complex social relationships and responsibilities that confront them today and learn to live in harmony with them. To learn "to do what is best for self and others and like it" is the fundamental lesson they must learn.

Our schools from the grades through college are conducted too much in a social vacuum and this does not prepare shortcuts to adjust to the very complex social relationships that will confront them in life later. Right social relationships and responsibilities can be learned from the kindergarten up through the grades, high school and college if they are made a part of daily living and ingrained as social habits. They cannot be tested by a written examination but by social behavior every minute of the day. They must be inextricably associated with the individual's highest welfare and accepted as such by the individual. How much time does the average teacher spend in helping children learn to get deep satisfaction in doing what is best for them and others? Unless this lesson is learned, conduct on a socially mature level is impossible.



Investigating a Muskrat Home.



Cooking Out at the Shelter.



Painting Dead Weed Stalks for Table Decorations. These were Collected on the Morning Hike.

Hammerman - - -

(Continued from page 41)

studying the weather, and visiting nearby farms, sawmills and blacksmith shops.

Besides planning their own program of studies, the children are also responsible for setting tables, cleaning up afterwards, and for the upkeep of the building in which they live.

It is felt that the school camping program, as well as enriching the curriculum, provides valuable opportunities in developing and improving attitudes and concepts of social growth.

It is the aim in Michigan to make this kind of outdoor living experience available to every school child by 1960. It is a very ambitious goal, true, but one that will be accomplished first by the forward thinking educators of Michigan's public schools.

Abstracts of Theses

Parkhurst, Willis M., *An Inquiry Into the Backgrounds of Well Adjusted and Poorly Adjusted adolescents: A Pilot Study.* June, 1952. 91 pp. (No. 755).

Problem. This thesis undertakes (1) to locate a group of adolescents with well adjusted personalities and a group of adolescents with poorly adjusted personalities; (2) to study and compare them, seeking to determine which factors in their backgrounds may be related to the quality of their adjustment and which may be worthy of further investigation; and (3) to propose a plan for future investigation which may seek correlations between certain of the indicated variables with a fair degree of validity.

Method. The groups were located through the use of the Heston Personal Adjustment Inventory, which was administered to all the seniors of the Indiana State Teachers College Laboratory High School during the sum-

ferences in the degrees of success of the various adjustive mechanisms employed by the two groups.

On the basis of these findings, a plan of study is recommended which might yield well validated correlations between certain environmental factors and adjustment.

Allen, Alva Freadman, *The Effectiveness of Two Methods of Teaching Social Studies in High School*, June, 1952. 72 pp. (No. 737).

Problem. It was the purpose of this experiment (1) to evaluate two methods of teaching social studies; (2) to determine whether one method proved to be more effective than the other; (3) to measure the general social outcomes to be desired from a course in American history; and (4) to determine student attitudes, opinions, and preferences toward the teaching methods used in this experiment through use of a questionnaire study.

Method. The method of procedure employed throughout the experiment was to conduct two six-weeks experiments with a class in American history taught to students in their junior year in high school. The first six weeks of the experiment were conducted by means of the traditional textbook-question-and-answer method. The second six weeks of the experiment were conducted by means of panel and group activity.

Each method of teaching was evaluated at the end of the experimental period during which it was employed. Standardized tests and teacher-made tests were administered at the end of each experimental period to determine its effectiveness. A comparison of the test results was made at the end of the full experimental period.

Findings. The achievement made by the group as measured by standardized tests was somewhat greater under the textbook-question-and-answer method than under the panel discussion and group activity method. The median score on the test given at the end of the first six weeks of teaching by the textbook-question-and-answer method was found to be one

hundred seven. The median score made on the test given at the end of the second six weeks of teaching by the panel discussion and group activity method was found to be one hundred three. The social outcomes of the experiment were measured by standardized tests. They indicated that the experimental group had not developed the desired understanding and interpretations from a course in American history, even though they had achieved the desired factual knowledge. The student questionnaire used to determine student preference was decidedly in favor of the textbook-question-and-answer method.

However, at no point in the experiment was it possible to indicate that one method was decisively superior to the other, but since the greater point gain was made under the textbook-question-and-answer method and since more students showed more improvement under the textbook-question-and-answer method, the writer believed a slight preference was indicated toward the effectiveness of this method of teaching.

Lang, Dorothy R., *A Study of Failure in Senior High School*, June, 1952. 60 pp. (No. 740).

Problem. This study was made (1) to obtain the causes for failure as expressed both by the students who had failed and by their teachers; (2) to compare the reasons for failure as given by the students and teachers concerned; (3) to determine the relationship between IQ and failure; (4) to discover in which subject areas failing marks were most prevalent; and (5) to arrive at suggestions for minimizing failure.

Method. At the end of the first semester of the school year 1951-52, a list was obtained of all students who failed to receive credit in one or more subjects in Bosse High School, Evansville, Indiana. A file was made containing a card for each failing student. The name of the student, his grade level, test data, subjects failed, and the names of the teachers concerned were recorded on each card. A confidential interview was held

with each failing student to ascertain why he thought he had failed. His remarks were then recorded on the interview card.

Brief questionnaire forms were sent to the teachers of the failing students asking for the teacher's reasons for the pupil's failure. These were filed with the interview cards.

The data were tabulated according to the reasons for failure as given both by the students and the teachers, according to the occurrence of failure in the various subject areas and grade levels, and according to IQ's.

Findings. The results of this investigation indicated that teachers and students agreed as to the most significant cause of failure but differed as to the order of their importance according to the frequency with which they were mentioned. Teachers ranked lack of effort, poor attitudes, absences, lack of ability as most important causes, while students most frequently named lack of interest, too difficult work, lack of ability, and failure to work to capacity. A combined list of frequencies of mention by both teachers and students resulted in the following order: (1) lack of effort, (2) lack of interest, (3) poor attitude, (4) absences, (5) lack of ability, (6) failure to work to capacity, (7) failure to meet course requirements, (8) too difficult work, (9) failure to develop techniques, (10) weak educational background, (11) poor study habits, (12) competition from outside activities, and (13) reading difficulties.

The area of English produced the largest number of failures with 41.7 per cent of the total group. Business, social studies, and mathematics came next in that order. Art and music reported no failures.

The number of failures was greatest in the tenth grade and least in the twelfth grade.

Scores on the Otis Mental Ability Test showed a range of IQ from 58 to 122 in the failing group. The mean score was 93.9 and sixty-five per cent of the failing students had IQ test scores of 90 or above. Nearly one-half of the students who had IQ's of

mer term of 1949. The pupils in these groups were studied through the medium of personal interviews with the subjects, and through interviews with their teachers and parents or guardians wherever practical. The data were written up as case studies and incorporated into charts for ease of comparison.

Findings. The results of the comparisons indicated differences in the environment, differences in the types of adjustments attempted, and 90 or above made scores on the Iowa Silent Reading Test which were indicative of retardation. The reading level retardation range for the entire failure group was from one month to two and one-half years.

There seems to be a need for adjustment in three areas—personal, instructional, and curricular. The problem of failure in the high school is likely to remain one of major concern for school personnel, students, parents, and members of the community as long as there is reluctance to use every available technique and device to alleviate it. Only through the concerted and coordinated efforts of all concerned with the educative process and its outcomes can the problem be reduced to one of minor significance.

Nuttall, Wilda. *A Remedial Reading Program for a Seventh Grade in the Robinson, Illinois Junior High School.* July, 1952. 75 pp. (No. 758).

Problem. The purpose of this study was to develop and conduct a remedial reading program in a seventh grade on the basis of needs revealed in a diagnostic testing program and to evaluate the effectiveness of the program. The group receiving the remedial program was compared to a similar class which did not receive the remedial work.

Method. Two groups of children were studied. An experimental and a control group. The experimental group consisted of thirty-nine children ranging in age from eleven to fourteen years; in grade level from 5.9 years to 11.0 years; and with I.Q.'s from 70 to 119. The control group was very similar in every respect. The Cali-

fornia Mental Maturity Test, the Iowa Silent Reading Test, and Stanford Achievement Tests were used, as well as a retesting program for evaluation. Cumulative records, case studies, teacher made tests and interest inventories furnished additional information for the learning activities. Children who showed a definite need for help voluntarily elected themselves with the help of the teacher to plan a reading program suited to their needs and abilities. None of the pupils in the control group received any special remedial treatment or study.

Findings. No assumption was made that remedial reading was the sole dominant factor influencing the improvements noted in the experimental group. All the educational facilities of the school contributed to the total growth of the pupils.

Pupils did make definite progress when given special instruction in a small group. The final testing program showed that every child has made a gain of from .4 years to 2.1 years.

The average gain for the control group during the remedial program was .5 years, whereas the average gain for the experimental group during the same period was 1.1 years.

These children are not yet up to standard, but they have advanced and are more interested, happy children because each child's growth in reading is measured in terms of his own progress, not that of other pupils in the classroom.

Student's interest can be built up to the point where there is a desire to read.

When children gain self-confidence and experience some success, their reading becomes vital to them.

Learning to read increases the child's sense of power and opens the door to new satisfactions and knowledge.

Gains in reading are evaluated in terms of individual adjustment in which we estimate the success of our work by the individual's enhanced personality balance and mental hygiene. These gains are reflected in better teacher-pupil relationships, and in child behavior.

Any reading program must be constantly revised and activities adapted to individual capacities and interests.

Swisher, Grace Lillian. *Speech Characteristics of Alexander Campbell as Shown in the Remarks of His Contemporaries and His Successors.* August, 1952. 85 pp. (No. 759.)

Problem. This study of the remarks of Alexander Campbell's contemporaries and successors was made to determine what had been said about him as a speaker. The study was three-fold, in that three factors were considered: first, his character and ability; second, his style of language; and third, his style of delivery.

Method. The historical method with library technique was used in the study. Card catalogues and bibliographies were searched for books, encyclopedias, periodicals, and unpublished material leading to any information about Alexander Campbell.

All the information used was classified under three headings: first, Alexander Campbell, himself; second, his style of language; and, third, his style of delivery. These characteristics were then compared to the characteristics of a good speaker, according to speech authorities. Then they were summarized to show in which Alexander Campbell was weak and in which he excelled.

Findings. It was found that Mr. Campbell was a man of strong character and outstanding ability. He could attract multitudes and interest them for long periods of time.

He was sincere, fair, courteous, modest, and genial. He had self-respect and self-control, and he always treated his opponents and audiences with the greatest deference.

He loved truth and hated exaggeration. He was never known to resort to frivolity in his preaching.

He tried to be an authority and to cite the proper authority on the subject about which he spoke.

Regarding his style of language, it can be said he used variety, comparison and climax and figures of speech, illustrations, and euphony. His brevity and economy might be questioned.

for his sermons were very long. His discourses were vivid, specific, and simple, except, occasionally when he used expressions foreign to his audience. Most of his words were familiar, and they were well chosen.

His delivery was original and unique. He had conversational contact with his audience and was desirous of achieving his purpose.

His enunciation and pronunciation were good. His voice was clear, and his emphasis made his discourses forceful. He usually spoke about two hours and used little platform action. Many people considered him eloquent.

Book Reviews

Psychology and its Bearing on Education by C. W. Valentine. New York: Philosophical Library, 1951. pp. xvi-674. \$6.00.

This new educational psychology from England has much to please the reader, for it is written in a simple, agreeable, clear style; its material is extensive and sound, and it is pervaded by a wholesome and forward-looking philosophy of education.

The book covers all of the expected topics: intelligence, intelligence tests, special abilities and their testing, personality and judging personality, emotions, aesthetic appreciations, motivation, interests, play, attention, learning and remembering, thinking and reasoning, habits, development in infancy, middle childhood, and adolescence, backward children, problem children, and young delinquents—as well as a number of other topics such as collecting, the popularity of school subjects, sentiments, the inferiority complex, sex instruction, and so on.

At first glance, however, it will seem rather strange to American readers; for its chapter titles have somewhat more formality than we tend to see and often suggest a different approach from the ones we are accustomed to: "Sympathy, the Par-

ental Impulse, Fear and Disgust," "Anger, Pugnacity and Aggressiveness; Self-assertion and Self-submission," Temperament and the Coordination of Innate Tendencies," and the like. One gets the impression too that each topic is added on to the preceding ones without particular plan. This lack of any grouping of topics into some easily comprehended over-all organization is the book's only major defect.

Teachers of educational psychology will enjoy reading this book both because its clear presentation of widely accepted concepts and principles makes for agreeable reading and because they find illustrations and expressions of viewpoints which will enlighten them. Students will like it because it is interesting and invariably clear.

—Marguerite Malm
Professor of Education
Indiana State Teachers College

Body Dynamics. By Eleanor Metheny (Ph.D.) University of Southern California: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1952 pp 225 + IX.

Economy of effort and intelligent use of muscular power form the keynote of the discussion in this volume. It is written in a clear, direct style. Its scope is limited, but its appeal is to any person, regardless of technical background, who is interested in enriching her knowledge of how to get satisfying results from energy spent in performing the normal activities of everyday living.

The author states a four-fold purpose of the book; namely, first to serve as a text book for college freshmen in general courses in physical education; second, to help the professional student to pull together in simple, practical form, the highlights of detailed courses; third, to direct the beginning teacher of physical education in simplifying her presentation of basic sciences in their relation to the fundamentals of exercise and functional body mechanics; and fourth, to guide the adult reader who wishes to use it to help her gain a

better understanding of her own postural problem.

Part I is largely a practical treatise on "Basic Structures." Part II, dealing with "The Expenditure of Energy" includes chapters relating exercise to its uses, relaxation, abdominal function, and weight control. Part III views "The Conservation of Energy" in five separate chapters on "The Balanced Posture." The balanced posture is discussed in turn with respect to: standing, walking, working, sitting, and evaluation.

Part IV, the Appendix, contains a practical description of each of forty-six representative exercises. The use of each exercise is clearly stated. The author refers to these exercises all through the text in a practical feature which closes each chapter, namely, a list of "Projects for Further Study."

Simple line drawings, used throughout the book, are apparently the work of the author. They are, for the most part, clever, pleasing, and straight to the point for what they attempt to illustrate, but it is the opinion of this writer that certain inaccuracies in Figure 5 on page twenty-three make it more confusing than helpful.

An elaborately worked out index simplifies the use of this book as a quick, ready reference on many occasions.

The book deserves the consideration of every person who works with others in trying to direct them through the problems imposed by normal living habits.

—Ruby J. East
Assoc. Prof. of Physical Education
Indiana State Teachers College

General Methods of Teaching. By A. Gordon Melvin. New York, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1952. pp. 251. \$3.75.

General Methods of Teaching is another splendid addition to the McGraw-Hill Series in Education. It is a text in general teaching methods. In brief, clear fashion *principles* and *practices basic to all levels of teaching* are set forth in rather unique manner. Naturally, the learner determines the methods used by a good teacher.

community resources in creative fashion. Without preaching the stage is set for doing and, in turn, for learning and "good living" in the classroom, shop, and laboratory.

The sequence is that of the teacher actually at work. The approach is functional.

The topics of the chapters are indicative of this stage idea in which the master teacher manipulates the sets and activities so that genuine learning takes place in the pupils who are for old concepts are found throughout the text. Therefore, we find these the actors and actresses. New names topics discussed in order: "The Teacher's Task: Doing Brings Learning; The Values the Teacher Hopes to Pass to New Lives; Forecasting the Class Program; Meet the Players. The author believes that there are certain constants or "universals" which are essential to all teaching at all levels. Modern teachers utilize many Peace and Order; Content of Teaching and Meaning; Method and Technique; Group and Individual Development; Mounting the Lesson; the Social Meaning of Teaching; and Checking Up." An analysis of the chapter titles reveals an unusual slant on content and sequence as compared with most texts on the area of general method.

The style of writing is simple, clear, and challenging. Fundamentals in the psychology of learning are beautifully expressed. Illustrations are drawn largely from the elementary level which the author believes to be the "level at which the best teaching tends to be found." Generalizations are shown in italics—hence cannot be missed. A short, appropriate bibliography appears at the end of each chapter.

For those who teach in industry, in the military, in hospitals, in adult

education programs as well as in the public schools, this text will offer specific help concerning the basic concepts of teaching as a complex process, and inspiration to constant improvements through self-criticism. In a field that has many weighty volumes of theory and research, this small volume is a distillation of all those fundamentals which make creative teaching both a science and an art.

—Helen Ederle
Asst. Prof. of Education
Indiana State Teachers College

The Public Administration of American Schools. By Van Miller and Willard B. Spalding. New York: World Book Company, 1952, XV + 606 pp.

The title of this book causes the thoughtful reader to pause and take careful inventory for it suggests a slightly different approach to the problems of school administration than do the majority of the books which have been published in the field previously. In the introductory note the authors make the following statement: "A dead end will be reached if the whole citizenry fails in desiring and bearing responsibility for the schools of America. Therefore, this book is addressed both to prospective teachers and school administrators and to American citizens in general. It is addressed to teachers and school administrators to help them realize the vital importance of avoiding usurpation of the whole responsibility for school control, and to other citizens so that they will not let this happen." Throughout the book the thesis is maintained that the administration of American schools is a responsibility and function of the whole citizenry. The book is con-

cerned with basic understandings and generalized procedures rather than being intended as a specific guide for school administrators.

The authors have attempted to accomplish their purposes by dividing their materials into three major parts. In Part One, the reader is given an overview of the cultural role of our American schools together with their complexities, problems and activities. Part Two emphasizes the decision-making and execution necessary in the operation of schools constantly stressing the responsibility charged to each community. Part Three gives specialized functions and methods whereby the administrator can help communities operate and administer their schools.

The twenty-three chapters of this book are written in such a manner that they are applicable to all school levels whether elementary or secondary. The professional worker is led to see his role in the area of administration. At all times democratic procedures are stressed as a part of our cultural heritage as well as a way of getting things done. Each of the chapters is concluded with a list of suggested reading which seems to be adequate although often quite brief.

The book contains a rather highly selected bibliography of recent and current literature in the field. This bibliography contains much of the best materials in the field. A rather complete index is given at the end of the book.

It is the opinion of the writer that the authors have done well the task which they set themselves to do. Those interested in this approach to school administration will find this volume to be extremely helpful.

—Lloyd N. Smith
Professor of Education
Indiana State Teachers College

1953 CONVOCATION SCHEDULE

January	14	—	William F. Buckley— "God and Man at Yale"
February	11	—	Gerald Hooper— "Steamer to Trinidad"
February	25	—	William Smyser— "Adventures of a Working Diplomat"
March	25	—	Evansville All-City Orchestra, Mr. Claude B. Smith, director
April	8	—	Richard Corson— "Platform Portraits"
April	22	—	Alfred Wolff— "Portugal and Maderia"
May	6	—	Phi Mu Alpha Sinfonia Music Fraternity Program
May	20	—	Edwin Steckel— "Add Life to Your Years"
May	27	—	Indiana State Teachers College Honor Day

*All convocations are presented in the Indiana State Teachers College's Student Union auditorium at 10 a.m.
High school students and public are invited to attend and there is no admission charge.

Indiana State Sycamores

1952-53 Basketball Schedule

HOME			AWAY		
Dec.	11	—	Oakland City	Dec.	4 — Hanover
Dec.	16	—	Eastern Illinois	Dec.	6 — Concordia (St. Louis)
Dec.	18	—	Valparaiso*	Dec.	9 — DePauw
Dec.	27-30	—	MidWest Tourney	Jan.	10 — Butler*
Jan.	8	—	DePauw	Jan.	17 — Evansville*
Jan.	15	—	Ball State*	Jan.	24 — Northern Illinois
Jan.	22	—	St. Joseph's*	Jan.	30 — Ball State*
Feb.	5	—	Evansville*	Jan.	31 — Valparaiso*
Feb.	7	—	Manchester	Feb.	10 — St. Joseph's*
Feb.	12	—	Butler*	Feb.	17 — Eastern Illinois
Feb.	21	—	Washington (St. L.)	Feb.	27 — Southern Illinois
Mar.	3-4	—	Indiana N.A.I.A. playoffs		

* Indiana Collegiate Conference Games.

Head Basketball Coach John L. Longfellow

Ass't. Basketball Coach Mark Dean



May the new year ahead—

*Abound with success and
happiness for you.*

The College Board and Staff
of

Indiana State Teachers College



